Incarceration Rates and other Factors Influencing Crime Rates in the United States

ECON 3161 Final Project
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Submitted
April 19th

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Abstract

Over the past several decades the size of the United States prison population has exploded and led many people to question whether or not the massive number of citizens we send to prison each year is an effective way to reduce crime rates within our communities. This paper reviews how incarceration rates and other factors influence burglary rates and robbery rates within the United States. The study attempts to find if the rapid growth in the incarcerated population is actually acting to reduce crimes, and if other factors have a larger impact on crime rates. Both single and multiple regression models were used to estimate the relationship between robbery rates and burglary rates and incarceration rates and other variables such as GDP per capita, unemployment and correctional expenditure as a percentage of state expenditure. The data suggests that factors such as unemployment and correctional expenditure have much larger impacts on reducing crime rates than incarceration rates. The study also finds that contrary to the common belief among lawmakers, higher incarceration rates lead to higher crime rates. Ultimately the study concludes that the massive increase in incarceration rates is not acting to reduce crime and that addressing other factors may be a more effective approach to reducing crime.

I. Introduction

The United States spends more resources on its criminal prison system than any other nation in the world. Ultimately the belief in the mind of lawmakers is that this is a necessary construct needed to reform criminals in order to properly incorporate them into society. However, maintaining a prisoner population of over 1.6 million people is very expensive, and costs American taxpayers hundreds of billions of dollars every year. **Figure 1** shows the number of incarcerated Americans in the US between 1920 and 2006. The large expenditure incurred to maintain this growing prison population has led many in America to question the efficiency of incarceration in correcting criminal behavior within the population.

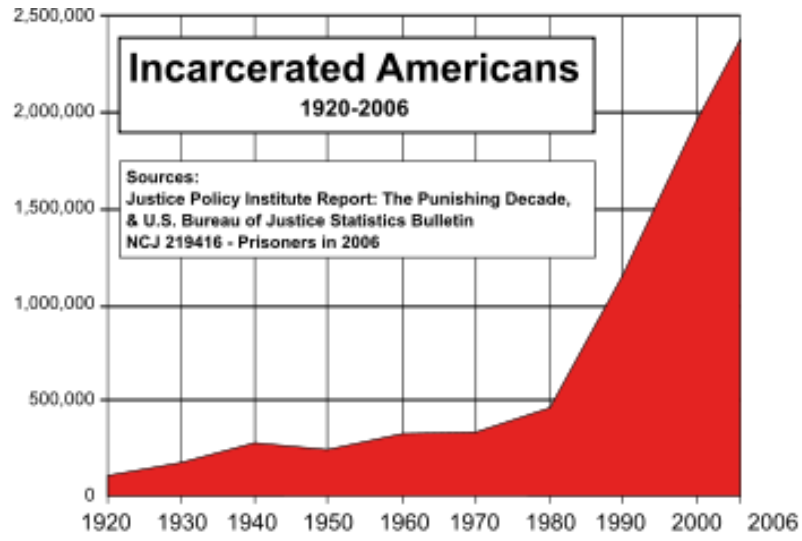

Figure 1. Number of incarcerated Americans by year in the United States.

This research will investigate other factors that could contribute to crime other than incarceration rates in the hopes that a more enlightened approach towards managing crime could be created. Also the paper will also investigate if violent crimes, represented by robbery where a criminal must use force and directly confront a victim, respond differently to incarceration rates than nonviolent crimes such as burglary, where the criminal never confronts or threatens the victim. It is hypothesized that incarceration rates have a very limited ability at reducing crime, and that other factors such as unemployment and correctional expenditure will have a larger impact on crime rates.

II. Literature Review

The first paper is very similar in design to the current study in that it attempts to estimate the effect of changes in incarceration rates on changes in crime rates using state provided data [1]. Ultimately the paper attempts to review how responsive a change in the incarceration rate is correlated with a change in the general crime rate. The paper attempts to model the response as either elastic or inelastic. In this context if an increase in incarceration leads to a similar or larger reduction in crime rate than the defined "crime-prison elasticities" is large. If the change in crime rate is unresponsive to a change in incarceration rate then this value is small. In conclusion the paper found that over time the marginal impact of incarcerating one additional prisoner has declined over the past several decades. To summarize, the study found that incarcerating a prisoner in the 1980s led to a larger reduction in the crime rate than incarcerating a prisoner in 2004. This means that the marginal benefit of society for maintaining such a large prisoner population is decreasing as time goes on.

The second paper discusses the effects of "War on Drugs" on crime rates. "War on Drugs" refers to mandatory sentencing laws, federal spending on the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) and drug related incarcerations [2]. The period of study covers 1970 - 2009 in the United States. A model was created taking into consideration 7 independent variables including percentage of incarceration of drug related crimes, federal spending on the DEA, GDP per capita, unemployment rate, the Anti-Drug Act of 1986 for the period it lasted, average price of less than two grams of cocaine and abortion rate per one thousand live births. The dependent variable is the crime rate which is divided into 4 categories - total crime, burglaries, violent crime and property crime. Hence, the independent variables are used to indicate four categories of crime. Our main focus, however, is the effect of incarcerations on crime rate. Politicians and other officials have argued that increase in incarceration can help reduce crime rate. However, a regression on the model shows that the coefficient is positive and significant for total crime, burglaries and property crimes. The cause of this is the crowding out of drug offenders in prisons due to the large number of incarcerations of drug offenders. As a result, non-drug offenders are released from prison early to make more room for drug offenders. Due to mandatory sentencing laws, the judge's discretion is removed which forces drug offenders into incarceration [2].

Another research study also investigated the impact that incarceration has on crime rates within a population. A study conducted by Villanova university reviewed arrest and crime data over an approximately two long decade period from 1971-1998, gathering data from all 51 states and provinces across the United States [3]. This study created a model designed to relate the current number of

incarcerations within our criminal justice system to the total amount of crime occurring in the years following when this data was gathered. The results of this study found that impact of incarceration and the reduction of crime rates within any particular population has been in decline for over a decade [3]. Ultimately, this means that our growing prison population is doing less and less per the addition of each new prisoner at reducing crime and lowering crime rates. The study theorized that this is in large part to the fact that many offenders are first time criminals. Because of this "first time offender" theory someone who has never been imprisoned is unlikely to consider the consequences of jail time when committing a crime. This would mean that the incarceration of another unrelated individual is unlikely to influence their decisions to break the law at that particular point in time [3].

The growing size of the prisoner population itself may have unforeseen impacts on the observed crime rate as well. A study published in 1996 investigated the effect of prison population overcrowding by reviewing how reducing the prisoner population would impact observed crime rates. In this particular study only prisons that were forced to release inmates due to new state legislation to reduce extreme overcrowding were reviewed [4]. In this case the results seem to contradict the conclusion presented by the Villanova study. They found that reducing the prisoner population actually lead to an increase in the crime rate in the local area and that the marginal social benefit of crime reduction associated with retaining that one prisoner is greater than the cost of having an overcrowded prison [4]. However, it should be noted that this study looked at cases where prison systems are reducing their enrollment by letting prisoners out on parole. A prisoner out on parole is more likely to commit a second crime than a random person is at becoming a first time offender, so this may partially explain why the two studies reached somewhat different conclusions.

When reviewing crime rates it is also important to consider other socioeconomic factors that may influence the rate of crime within a population. A studied conducted in 2010 by the University of Wake Forest found that a number of factors under Federal and State control have a huge impact on crime rates. This study concluded that for most types of crimes a high incarceration rate does not have a significant impact on reducing the occurrence of that type of crime within a given population [5]. However, the research did find that for certain types of crimes higher incarceration rates lead to significant crime rates reduction. This was prevalent only for drug related crimes, and the impact was more profound if more state resources, such as addiction treatment and counseling were given to offenders during their prison term. Ultimately, this paper concluded that most important factor influencing crime rates is the changes in average income per capita [5]. This supports that belief that during harder economic times people have a higher incentive to commit a crime.

The current study differs from the presented literature in a number of ways. The research conducted in the above papers involved very specific circumstances, such identifying subjects by parole status or if they were a repeat offender and then creating customized sample populations based on this status. The current study will include crime rate and incarceration data for all individuals within a population. Also, the models presented in this study will have a larger number of variables than any of the above studies to investigate as many socio economic factors as possible and how they impact crime rates.

III. Data

For the simple regression analysis, the incarceration rates by all 50 states over the year 2010 was selected as the independent variable while crime rates for robbery and burglary by state over the year 2010 was selected as the dependent variable. Incarceration rates was selected as the independent variable since the accuracy of this data is very robust and is generated by a court of law and put on public records. In the multiple regression model unemployment, GDP per capita, correctional expenditure as a percentage of state spending, and number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants are additional regressors accounted for. The number of officers in a state is an important factor as they enforce and keep law and order in the state. The correctional expenditure per state might vary from state to state depending on the state policies. However the amount of money spent on the correctional facilities plays a key role in determining crime rate in a state.

Data for expenditure and police force information was collected from US Justice Department. The data for the crime rates were obtained from the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) Statistics databases. Data for the incarceration rates was obtained from the United States Bureau of Justice Statistics. Unemployment rate and GDP per capita for each state was obtained from the Department of Labor. The data for the correctional expenditure was obtained from the bureau of justice statistics which covered stats from 2002 to 2010. Hence the rate of spending for that entire period was taken into consideration. The data for the number of officers in a state was once again obtained from the FBI Statistics database taken per 100,000 inhabitants similar to the incarceration rate and the crime rate.

The sample population for the models is very large and ensures that an adequate and random sample of crime data is gathered. Additionally none of the variables have perfect linear collinearity. The correlations between all variables used in each model can be seen in **Figure 1**. These conditions satisfy the Gauss-Markov criteria for data selection and allow the construction of robust regression models.

	burgrate	sentinc1	correxp	gdpper~a	unempr~e	offrate
burgrate	1.0000					
sentinc1	0.5702	1.0000				
correxp	-0.0711	-0.0433	1.0000			
gdppercapita	-0.4434	-0.2830	0.1285	1.0000		
unemprate	0.3340	0.2804	0.2551	-0.2346	1.0000	
offrate	0.1220	0.3772	-0.0249	0.2353	0.0771	1.0000

Figure 1. Correlation between each Regressor in the Multiple Regression Model.

IV. Results

1. Regression Model Results

Table 2. Coefficients of each Variable under the Simple and Multiple Regression Models.

Variable	Model I (robrate as independent variable)	Model II (burgrate as independent variable)	Model III (robrate as independent variable)	Model IV (burgrate as independent variable)
sentinc1 (incarceration rate)	0.89414 (0.023*)	0.7638092 (0.000*)	0.457516 (0.172)	0.5936175 (0.002*)
correxp (correctional expenditure)	NA	NA	-3.236607 (.084**)	-4.824906 (0.638)
gdppercapita	NA	NA	0.0021652 (.002*)	-0.007552 (0.044*)
unemprate	NA	NA	13.32461 (0.000*)	15.93361 (0.213)
offrate (officers per 100,000 inhabitants)	NA	NA	0.1955372 (0.086**)	0.0265495 (0.966)
Observations	50	50	50	50
R-squared	0.1035	0.3251	0.5757	0.4324
Adjusted R-squared	0.0848	0.3111	0.5275	0.3679
Prob > F	0.0227	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001

(*) = Reject null that coefficient is 0 at the 5% confidence level

(**) = Reject null that coefficient is 0 at the 10% confidence level

2. Simple Regression Analysis for Robbery

The following equation is the simple regression results for the regression of incarceration on robbery rates for n = 50 states. The STATA results can be found in **Table 2** under Model I.

robrate = Constant + (sentinc1)

The simple regression of incarceration rate (sentinc1) on robbery rate yields a coefficient of 0.089414 on incarceration rate. This is surprising because it suggests that a unit increase in the incarceration rate will increase the rate of robbery by 0.089414 robberies per 100,000 people per year. The p value for this observation is 0.023, thus rejecting the null hypothesis that the coefficient on sentinc1 is 0 at the 5% confidence level.

3. Simple Regression Analysis for Burglary

The following equation is the simple regression results for the regression of incarceration on burglary rates for n = 50 states. The STATA results can be found in **Table 2** under Model II.

burgrate = Constant + sentinc1

The simple regression of incarceration rate on burglary rate yields a coefficient of 0.7638092 on incarceration rate. Like the above regression this model yields a positive coefficient and predicts that a unit increase in incarceration rate will increase the rate of burglary by 0.7638092 burglaries per 100,000 people per year. The p value for this observation is 0.000, thus rejecting the null hypothesis that the coefficient on sentinc1 is 0 with great confidence.

4. Multiple Regression Analysis for Robbery

The following table displays the multiple regression of incarceration rate, correctional expenditure as a percentage of the total state expenditure, GDP per capita, unemployment, and officers per 100,000 inhabitants on robbery rates for n = 50 states. The STATA results can be found in **Table 2** under Model III.

robrate = Constant + (1) sentinc1 + (2) correxp + (3) gdppercapita + (3) unemprate + (4) offrate

The multiple regression above yields a positive coefficient of 0.0457516 on incarceration rate, with a p value of 0.172. Like the simple regression model, the multiple regression model suggests that an increase in incarceration rate will increase the robbery rate; however the much larger p value does not allow rejection of the null at the 5% confidence level. The coefficients of 0.0021652 and 0.1955372 for GDP per capita and officers per 100,000 inhabitants respectively predicts that an increase in either one of these values will lead to an increase in the robbery rate. The p value of .002 for GDP per capita allows rejection of the null at the 5% level, while the p value of 0.084 for officers per 100,000 inhabitants allows rejection of the null at the 10% level. The coefficient of -3.236607 on correctional expenditure predicts that a unit increase in correctional expenditure will decrease the robbery rate by -3.236607 robberies per 100,000 inhabitants per year, with a p value of 0.084 allowing the null hypothesis to be rejected at the 10% confidence level. The coefficient of 13.32461 suggests that a unit increase in the unemployment rate will lead to a large increase of 13.32461 in the robbery rate. The p value of this observation is 0.000 allowing the null to be rejected at the 5% confidence level.

5. Multiple Regression Analysis for Burglary

The following equation is the multiple regression of incarceration rate, correctional expenditure as a percentage of the total state expenditure, GDP per capita, unemployment, and officers per 100,000 inhabitants on burglary rates for n = 50 states. The STATA results can be found in **Table 2** under Model IV.

burgrate = Constant + (1) sentinc1 + (2) correxp + (3) gdppercapita + (3) unemprate + (4) offrate

The multiple regression above yields a coefficient of 0.5936175 on incarceration rate and a p value of 0.002. This means that a unit increase in the incarceration rate will increase the burglary rate by 0.5936175, also the p value of 0.002 allows rejection of the null at the 5% confidence level. The coefficient of -4.824906 on correctional expenditure predicts that a unit increase in correctional expenditure will decrease the burglary rate by 4.824906. The p value of 0.638 does not allow rejection of the null at the 5% of 10% confidence levels meaning that a value of 0 or even a positive coefficient could be the real value of this term. This large p value and 95% confidence interval do not allow robust statistical conclusions to be made for this variable within this model. The coefficient of 15.93361 on unemployment rate predicts that a unit increase in unemployment will increase the burglary rate by 15.93361, however the large p value of 0.213 does not allow for the null to be rejected and confident statistical conclusions to be made. The coefficient of -.007552 on GDP per capita predicts that a unit

increase in this variable will decrease the burglary rate by 0.007552, also with a p value of 0.044 the null can be rejected at the 5% confidence level. The coefficient of 0.265495 on officers per 100,000 inhabitants predicts a unit increase in this variable will increase the burglary rate by 0.265495. The p value of 0.966 does not allow rejection of the null at the 5% or 10% confidence levels.

6. Further Socio Economic Interpretation of the Results

In all models for both robbery rates and burglary rates the coefficient on incarceration rates was predicted to be positive. Also it is interesting to note that the coefficients for incarceration rates was smaller for the regressions on robbery rates than burglary rates in all models, with a simple regression coefficient of .089414 and multiple regression coefficient of 0.0457516 for burglary rates compared to a simple regression coefficient of 0.7638092 and multiple regression coefficient of 0.5936175. This suggests that robbery, a violent crime where the criminal uses force to steal property directly from a victim, is more responsive to incarceration rates than burglary, a crime where the criminal never directly threatens a victim with violence. It is also interesting to note that in all models it is predicted that as the number of officers per 100,000 inhabitants rises both robbery rates and burglary rates also increase. This could be a result of the fact that with a larger police force present more opportunities to observe and act on crime are presented. Common logic suggests that both of these variables should act to reduce crime rates but that conclusion is not supported by the presented models.

Of the additional variables considered in the multiple regression models, unemployment had a noticeably large impact on both burglary rates and robbery rates with a coefficient on each of the variables of 15.93361 and 13.31461 respectively. This seems to support past research and common sense that as a population is deprived of sources of income the inclination to steal property increase. In the multiple regression models the coefficient of correctional expenditure was -4.824906 for the regression on burglary rate and -3.236607 for the regression on robbery rates. These negative values suggest that as more money is spent on the correctional system the lower both robbery and burglary rates become. While the increase in spending could be a result of a larger incarcerated population, higher spending may also suggest a higher quality incarceration system may be more effective at reducing crime rates than a lower quality system with less funding.

7. Test for Robustness: F-test

For the F-test, the multiple regression models for both the crime rates (robbery and burglary) are used separately. To test the robustness of the model, economic factors are eliminated to create a restricted model. Hence the joint significance of *correxp, gdppercapita and unemprate* are tested. The unrestricted models for the two crime rates are shown below:

$$robrate = 0 + 0.045*sentinc1 - 3.23*correxp + 0.00216*gdppercapita + 13.324unemprate + 0.195offrate$$

$$burgrate = 0 + 0.593sentinc1 - 4.824correxp - 0.007gdppercapita + 15.933unemprate + 0.265offrate$$

The multiple regression models are displayed above with the OLS estimates of the coefficients. The restricted model is displayed below without the economic variables:

$$Robrate = 0 + 0.0544sentinc1 + 0.3228offrate$$

$$Burgrate = 0 + 0.8186sentinc1 - 0.506offrate$$

From the estimated model above, it can be observed that the coefficients change without the other factors. In order to find the joint significance of those factors, the R-squared value of the restricted and unrestricted models need to be known. The F-test for each of the crimes is displayed below along with the R-squared values and the degrees of freedom for each model.

$$Degrees\ of\ freedom\ (n-k-1) = 44$$

$$q = 3$$

$$F = ((R\text{-}squared\ (Unrestricted) - R\text{-}squared\ (Restricted))*(n-k-1)) / ((1 - R\text{-}squared\ (Unrestricted))*q)$$

The F value is determined using the equation above. The values are obtained from STATA after regressing the unrestricted as well as the restricted model.

a. F-Test: Robbery

R-squared (Unrestricted) = 0.5275
R-squared (Restricted) = 0.1650
F = 11.252
Critical Value (F table) = 2.84

The F value is much higher than the critical value. In this case, the joint significance of correctional expenditure, GDP per capita and unemployment rate is high. Hence the rate of robbery is highly dependent on the combination of the economic variables. This makes sense since robbery is motivated by economic factors. In the estimation of the unrestricted model, an increase in correctional expenditure caused a significant decrease in the crime rate which makes sense. Also, an increase in unemployment causes the crime rate to increase which also makes sense. As unemployment increases, people are more enticed to commit robbery. GDP per capita has a very small effect on the crime rate. All of these factors have a statistical significance individually as well as jointly.

b. F-Test: Burglary

R-squared (Unrestricted) = 0.3679
R-squared (Restricted) = 0.3069
F = 2.47
Critical Value (F table) = 2.84

The F value is less than the critical value in this case, which means that correctional expenditure, GDP per capita and unemployment rate are not jointly significant when it comes to burglary. Hence the combination of these three variables does not have a great effect on the burglary rate. Individually, only

GDP per capita is significant at the 5% level. Even though it is not a clear measure of joint significance the individual significances somewhat relate to the joint significance.

V. Conclusion

All of the models predicted that an increase in the incarceration rate leads to an increase in both robbery rates and burglary rates. This contradicts the common belief that a higher incarceration rate leads to a reduction in crime rates. The model also shows that other factors such as correctional expenditure and unemployment rates have a much greater impact on crime rates than incarceration rates.

Ultimately the results find that the current approach of the US justice system to combat crime with high incarceration rates is not an effective strategy. Factors such as correctional expenditure as a % of the total spending in the state and unemployment have a much larger impact on crime rates than incarceration rates. Analyzing these factors and finding ways to control or account for them when making criminal legislation regarding our justice system may prove more effective than passing laws, such as the controlled substance act, with the aim of increasing incarcerations. Ultimately, these findings support the hypothesis that high incarceration rates are ineffective at reducing crime rates and that other factors have a much greater impact on crime rates.

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Appendix A

Table 1. Raw Data by State for Expenditure, GDP, and Unemployment with Population.

States	**Population**	**Correction Expenditure (%)**	**GDP per Capita**	**Unemployment Rate**
ALABAMA	4,637,287	1.0	36,333	9.1
ALASKA	709,604	1.0	65,143	7.9
ARIZONA	6,304,972	2.9	40,828	9.6
ARKANSAS	2,913,580	7.0	36,483	7.9
CALIFORNIA	32,115,492	2.9	51,914	12.5
COLORADO	5,026,084	3.4	51,940	8.9
CONNECTICUT	3,574,097	2.0	64,833	9.0
DELAWARE	897,563	1.0	69,667	8.5
FLORIDA	17,887,439	3.2	40,106	12.0
GEORGIA	8,639,939	2.7	41,711	10.4
HAWAII	1,360,301	2.4	49,214	6.3
IDAHO	1,565,006	5.4	34,250	9.7
ILLINOIS	12,749,781	2.8	50,328	9.2
INDIANA	5,852,251	2.5	41,169	9.5
IOWA	3,038,644	2.4	49,067	6.1
KANSAS	2,600,455	4.2	44,310	6.8
KENTUCKY	4,098,561	4.9	37,535	10.3
LOUISIANA	3,407,020	2.2	47,467	7.7
MAINE	1,327,392	0.4	40,923	7.5
MARYLAND	5,593,253	2.2	51,724	7.4
MASSACHUSETTS	6,493,971	1.4	58,108	8.3
MICHIGAN	9,709,589	2.2	37,616	11.1

MINNESOTA	5,220,467	5.0	50,396	6.9
MISSISSIPPI	2,795,693	1.6	32,967	10.2
MISSOURI	5,882,476	4.6	41,117	9.6
MONTANA	988,583	1.9	37,200	7.4
NEBRASKA	1,778,848	1.7	49,778	4.3
NEVADA	2,700,551	9.0	47,222	14.9
NEW HAMPSHIRE	1,192,506	4.1	47,385	5.6
NEW JERSEY	8,491,420	0.8	56,477	9.1
NEW MEXICO	2,008,152	0.9	35,952	8.6
NEW YORK	19,194,379	8.3	57,423	8.2
NORTH CAROLINA	9,530,637	5.2	42,884	9.8
NORTH DAKOTA	668,266	2.8	47,714	3.8
OHIO	9,362,390	3.0	42,035	9.5
OKLAHOMA	3,749,477	1.1	42,237	6.8
OREGON	3,794,249	6.1	44,447	10.6
PENNSYLVANIA	9,609,935	8.2	45,323	15.7
RHODE ISLAND	1,052,567	1.9	45,000	11.5
SOUTH CAROLINA	4,220,787	3.4	35,717	10.9
SOUTH DAKOTA	812,168	1.7	49,875	4.7
TENNESSEE	6,341,016	3.9	39,730	9.4
TEXAS	25,006,973	2.3	45,940	8.3
UTAH	2,763,885	1.0	41,750	7.5
VERMONT	365,443	0.4	44,000	5.8
VIRGINIA	7,998,552	1.0	53,463	6.6

WASHINGTON	6,708,828	9.2	52,403	9.3
WEST VIRGINIA	1,841,354	2.0	35,053	9.7
WISCONSIN	5,671,361	4.0	44,105	7.5
WYOMING	559,627	15.0	63,667	6.4

Table 2. Raw Data by State for Total Officers and Officers per 100,000 with Population.

	Population	**Total Officers per State**	**Officers/100,000 of population**
ALABAMA	4,637,287	10,930	235.70
ALASKA	709,604	1,219	171.79
ARIZONA	6,304,972	12,606	199.94
ARKANSAS	2,913,580	6,175	211.94
CALIFORNIA	32,115,492	78,996	245.97
COLORADO	5,026,084	11,536	229.52
CONNECTICUT	3,574,097	8,619	241.15
DELAWARE	897,563	2,323	258.81
FLORIDA	17,887,439	44,238	247.31
GEORGIA	8,639,939	24,581	284.50
HAWAII	1,360,301	2,947	216.64
IDAHO	1,565,006	2,793	178.47
ILLINOIS	12,749,781	35,443	277.99
INDIANA	5,852,251	10,569	180.60
IOWA	3,038,644	5,303	174.52
KANSAS	2,600,455	6,997	269.07
KENTUCKY	4,098,561	8,051	196.43

LOUISIANA	3,407,020	13,824	405.75
MAINE	1,327,392	2,250	169.51
MARYLAND	5,593,253	15,495	277.03
MASSACHUSETTS	6,493,971	16,152	248.72
MICHIGAN	9,709,589	18,229	187.74
MINNESOTA	5,220,467	8,825	169.05
MISSISSIPPI	2,795,693	6,154	220.12
MISSOURI	5,882,476	14,600	248.19
MONTANA	988,583	1,859	188.05
NEBRASKA	1,778,848	3,527	198.27
NEVADA	2,700,551	5,881	217.77
NEW HAMPSHIRE	1,192,506	2,606	218.53
NEW JERSEY	8,491,420	31,065	365.84
NEW MEXICO	2,008,152	4,393	218.76
NEW YORK	19,194,379	61,913	322.56
NORTH CAROLINA	9,530,637	22,920	240.49
NORTH DAKOTA	668,266	1,339	200.37
OHIO	9,362,390	19,683	210.23
OKLAHOMA	3,749,477	7,642	203.82
OREGON	3,794,249	6,130	161.56
PENNSYLVANIA	9,609,935	25,155	261.76
RHODE ISLAND	1,052,567	2,538	241.12
SOUTH CAROLINA	4,220,787	10,354	245.31
SOUTH DAKOTA	812,168	1,511	186.05
TENNESSEE	6,341,016	16,017	252.59

TEXAS	25,006,973	54,892	219.51
UTAH	2,763,885	4,870	176.20
VERMONT	365,443	1,158	316.88
VIRGINIA	7,998,552	18,380	229.79
WASHINGTON	6,708,828	10,405	155.09
WEST VIRGINIA	1,841,354	3,473	188.61
WISCONSIN	5,671,361	13,095	230.90
WYOMING	559,627	1,403	250.70

Table 3. Raw Data by State for Robbery, Burglary, and Theft with Population.

	Robbery/100,000 of population	**Burglary/100,000 of population**	**Larceny-Theft/100,000 of population**
ALABAMA	99.6	879.4	2,415.6
ALASKA	83.6	437.2	2,187.3
ARIZONA	108.5	794.3	2,403.2
ARKANSAS	81.3	1,114.9	2,253.8
CALIFORNIA	156.0	614.3	1,612.1
COLORADO	62.3	520.0	1,940.5
CONNECTICUT	99.4	424.5	1,581.0
DELAWARE	203.7	836.9	2,396.5
FLORIDA	138.7	899.5	2,438.4
GEORGIA	127.7	998.4	2,329.3
HAWAII	77.5	636.8	2,302.4
IDAHO	13.7	414.8	1,496.7
ILLINOIS	156.3	587.6	1,868.9

INDIANA	95.9	726.7	2,113.4
IOWA	33.2	546.8	1,571.8
KANSAS	54.1	680.1	2,229.2
KENTUCKY	86.4	698.5	1,709.7
LOUISIANA	114.9	1,002.2	2,427.1
MAINE	31.2	554.0	1,850.8
MARYLAND	191.5	632.9	2,051.7
MASSACHUSETTS	105.0	576.8	1,598.8
MICHIGAN	116.3	747.4	1,689.5
MINNESOTA	63.9	460.3	1,950.0
MISSISSIPPI	93.7	1,026.0	1,778.4
MISSOURI	102.4	735.4	2,343.0
MONTANA	15.9	369.3	2,020.3
NEBRASKA	56.1	455.9	2,019.4
NEVADA	196.2	823.0	1,574.5
NEW HAMPSHIRE	34.3	413.3	1,699.5
NEW JERSEY	134.4	440.5	1,464.5
NEW MEXICO	78.4	1,020.5	2,160.1
NEW YORK	146.9	335.3	1,500.4
NORTH CAROLINA	100.8	1,076.9	2,178.4
NORTH DAKOTA	13.4	292.3	1,348.5
OHIO	142.8	923.3	2,138.8
OKLAHOMA	89.0	999.0	2,144.8
OREGON	62.4	512.6	2,267.7
PENNSYLVANIA	128.8	434.3	1,607.4

RHODE ISLAND	74.1	581.5	1,747.2
SOUTH CAROLINA	107.7	997.9	2,617.2
SOUTH DAKOTA	18.9	390.7	1,364.1
TENNESSEE	131.8	1,012.2	2,411.9
TEXAS	130.6	909.1	2,603.3
UTAH	45.9	543.3	2,421.0
VERMONT	11.8	537.9	1,673.9
VIRGINIA	70.7	382.8	1,812.5
WASHINGTON	88.2	820.3	2,503.7
WEST VIRGINIA	44.7	580.5	1,531.7
WISCONSIN	79.2	467.1	1,897.5
WYOMING	13.5	381.3	1,975.4

Table 4. Raw Data by State for Sentenced Prisoners and Prisoners per 100,000 with Population.

	Population	**Sentenced Prisoners**	**Sentenced prisoners/100,000 of population**
ALABAMA	4,637,287	30739	662.9
ALASKA	709,604	2775	391.1
ARIZONA	6,304,972	38423	609.4
ARKANSAS	2,913,580	16147	554.2
CALIFORNIA	32,115,492	164213	511.3
COLORADO	5,026,084	22815	453.9
CONNECTICUT	3,574,097	13308	372.3

DELAWARE	897,563	3961	441.3
FLORIDA	17,887,439	104306	583.1
GEORGIA	8,639,939	54685	632.9
HAWAII	1,360,301	3939	289.6
IDAHO	1,565,006	7431	474.8
ILLINOIS	12,749,781	48418	379.8
INDIANA	5,852,251	28012	478.7
IOWA	3,038,644	9388	309.0
KANSAS	2,600,455	9051	348.1
KENTUCKY	4,098,561	19937	486.4
LOUISIANA	3,407,020	39444	1,157.7
MAINE	1,327,392	1942	146.3
MARYLAND	5,593,253	22275	398.2
MASSACHUSETTS	6,493,971	10027	154.4
MICHIGAN	9,709,589	44113	454.3
MINNESOTA	5,220,467	9796	187.6
MISSISSIPPI	2,795,693	20366	728.5
MISSOURI	5,882,476	30614	520.4
MONTANA	988,583	3716	375.9
NEBRASKA	1,778,848	4498	252.9
NEVADA	2,700,551	12556	464.9
NEW HAMPSHIRE	1,192,506	2761	231.5
NEW JERSEY	8,491,420	25007	294.5
NEW MEXICO	2,008,152	6614	329.4
NEW YORK	19,194,379	56461	294.2

NORTH CAROLINA	9,530,637	35436	371.8
NORTH DAKOTA	668,266	1487	222.5
OHIO	9,362,390	51712	552.3
OKLAHOMA	3,749,477	24514	653.8
OREGON	3,794,249	14831	390.9
PENNSYLVANIA	9,609,935	51075	531.5
RHODE ISLAND	1,052,567	2086	198.2
SOUTH CAROLINA	4,220,787	22822	540.7
SOUTH DAKOTA	812,168	3431	422.4
TENNESSEE	6,341,016	27451	432.9
TEXAS	25,006,973	164652	658.4
UTAH	2,763,885	6795	245.8
VERMONT	365,443	1649	451.2
VIRGINIA	7,998,552	37410	467.7
WASHINGTON	6,708,828	18212	271.5
WEST VIRGINIA	1,841,354	6642	360.7
WISCONSIN	5,671,361	21973	387.4
WYOMING	559,627	2112	377.4